

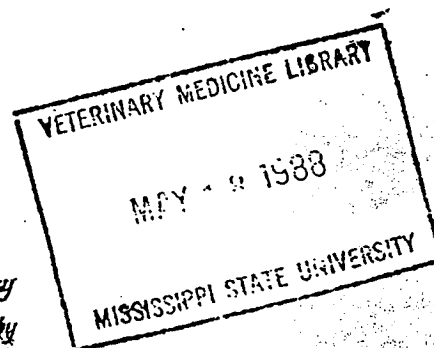
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Bureau of Rural Science
Department of Primary Industry

LIVESTOCK DISEASE SURVEYS
A FIELD MANUAL FOR VETERINARIANS

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INTRODUCTION

The Epidemiology Branch of the Bureau is frequently asked questions such as 'How many animals do we need to test to determine whether a certain disease is present in a herd or flock?' or 'How should we carry out a survey to find the prevalence of a disease in a State?'. This manual is an attempt to make the answers to these and similar questions available to field veterinarians in an easy-to-follow form.

The material included in this manual is not original. All the principles and concepts discussed are covered in texts on sampling theory or statistical methods. However, it is not always easy for a veterinarian to put his hand on an appropriate book when required and the treatment given in such books is often in unfamiliar terms. We have attempted to present the same material in the context of the types of questions we are frequently asked.

Section 1 deals with questions that must be answered when attempting to detect the presence of a disease, while Section 2 deals with estimating the level of occurrence of a disease present in a population. Section 3 considers sampling methodology and Section 4 discusses some commonly used (and misused) terms and concepts. Tables are included to provide the answers to the problems discussed in Sections 1 and 2.

For those who wish to obtain further detail of the principles and mathematical theory behind sampling techniques, a series of Appendices and a list of further reading are included.

1. SURVEYS TO DETECT THE PRESENCE OF DISEASE

1.1 Proving that a Disease is Not Present

Field veterinarians are frequently asked to certify the freedom of animal groups or populations from certain diseases. What testing needs to be undertaken to be able to give such a certification?

In some cases those wanting the certification will prescribe tests that must be conducted on all animals in the group. In this case no sampling considerations arise - all must be tested.

In other cases the veterinarian may be asked to certify as to the disease status of the property of origin of the animals moving interstate or overseas. In most cases the certification required will be that, to the best of the certifying officer's knowledge and belief, there has been no evidence of the disease in question on the property of origin of the stock during the previous 12 months. In such a case, so long as the certifying officer can satisfy himself that the animals in question have not been off the property in the previous 12 months, the certification could be given on the basis of records and knowledge of the disease history of the property.

However, in some cases the veterinarian may be asked to certify that the property of origin is free of a certain disease. In the absence of records of whole herd tests for the specified diseases, this would require the testing of at least a sample of the animals on the property. The sample tested should be of sufficient size to give 95% confidence that the disease is not present at a prevalence that is substantially below the prevalence expected on a diseased property. This question will be answered in section 1.2.

To prove that a disease is not present in a population, particularly if the disease could be present at a low level, requires the testing of all susceptible individuals in the population.

1.2 Detecting the Presence of a Disease

The size of the sample which needs to be tested to determine whether a disease is present in a particular population depends on:

- a) the size of the animal population in question
- b) if the disease is present, the likely prevalence
- c) the reliability required of the conclusions.

a) Size of the population to be sampled

If the sample makes up a significant proportion of the total population, the progressive sampling of negative animals from the population increases the probability that the next animal sampled will be positive. This effect is insignificant if the population to be surveyed is very large compared to the sample size.

b) The expected level of occurrence of the condition, if present

In most cases if a disease is present in a herd or flock we can expect some proportion, rather than a single animal, to be infected. An estimate of the likely level of occurrence can be made from the epidemiology of the disease and results of surveys in other herds or flocks. The higher the prevalence, the smaller the sample size that is required to detect an infected animal.

Thus a sample size can be chosen such that, if the sample is negative, it may be concluded that it is unlikely that any animal in the herd or flock has the disease.

c) Reliability of the conclusions drawn

By adopting a sampling procedure we are accepting, for the sake of economy, that we will not be able to make an absolute statement based on our findings. The larger the sample, the greater the confidence that can be placed in the results. The sample size can be chosen to give the confidence level desired.

The confidence levels that have generally been used in disease surveys are 95% or, occasionally, 99%. For example, suppose that the sample size has been chosen to give us 95% confidence of detecting antibodies if they are present in 10% of the herd. This means that, on average, 5 out of 100 herds with a 10% prevalence would not be detected as infected by our survey. However, very few herds with an antibody prevalence greater than 10% would not be detected by the survey, while the error rate for herds with a prevalence less than 10% would be greater than 5 in 100. Thus, if we expect infected herds to contain 20% to 50% positive animals, the testing of a sample that gave 95% confidence of detecting a 10% level of infected animals would detect most infected herds.

Table 1 gives the sample size required to detect various minimum levels of infection in different sized herds or flocks at one of three confidence levels.

Tables 2 and 3 look at this information in two other ways. Table 2 illustrates the effect that different proportions of sampling have on the chances of detecting a positive in populations with a small number of positives, while Table 3 shows the effect of sample size on the probability of detecting a positive in a population with a specified proportion of positives.

1.3 Disease Monitoring and Disease Surveillance

Disease monitoring poses a different problem. Consider, as an example, abattoir surveillance for brucellosis. We know the proportion of the herd that has been tested at slaughter. If all of these were negative, we wish to know if this is sufficient to say that the herd is negative, and so avoid doing a whole herd test.

The question to be answered is thus the converse of the one faced in Section 1.1. Rather than wanting to determine the sample size required for a given level of confidence of detecting disease, we want an indication of the level of disease that may be present given that our surveillance sample is negative. Table 1 can also be used to answer this question and gives the upper limit for the number of positives that could be present in the population given that none were detected in the surveillance sample. Again Tables 2 and 3 provide an alternate way of looking at the problem.

A Special Word About Abattoir Surveillance for Disease

Tables 1 to 3 assume that a random sample is tested. However, slaughter animals are not a true random sample of the population. Animals sent for slaughter are those judged by their owners to be in a suitable condition. Most of these animals will be free from any clinical disease. Slaughter animals will also be unrepresentative of the age structure and sex ratio of the population from which they are derived. Individuals with a poor performance in such things as reproduction or milk production are likely to be over-represented in slaughter animals.

Care must therefore be exercised in drawing inferences about the prevalence of disease in a population based on abattoir survey results. While information on the prevalence of conditions that do not affect the preparation of animals for slaughter (and do not affect the likelihood of an animal being culled) may be obtained from carefully planned abattoir surveys, thought needs to be given to the possible biases in this method before commencing a survey.

On the other hand, trace-back from abattoir surveillance does provide a cost effective method of identifying diseased herds and flocks. Abattoir surveillance data can also be cumulated from one period to the next - thereby building up a record on the herds or flocks of origin. In this respect the tables are not strictly correct since the animals in the herd or flock for which the percentage monitored is calculated is a changing population with replacements being bred or introduced. The effect of this, however, will generally be to increase the probability of detecting disease above the levels given in Table 1.

2. SURVEYS TO MEASURE THE PREVALENCE OF DISEASE

2.1 Establishing the Level of Occurrence of a Disease

Estimation of the prevalence of a disease involves the same sampling theory as detecting the presence of disease. In fact, surveying for the presence of a disease is a special application of the procedure followed in estimating the prevalence of disease in a population.

Again the sample size required will depend on the level of the disease in the population, the confidence level desired and the size of the population.

However, the question usually posed in relation to surveying to determine the prevalence of disease is, 'Having tested a random sample of animals from a population of known size and found a certain proportion of these to be positive, what does this mean about the level of disease in the population?'

Table 4 gives an estimate of the number of animals that need to be tested if it is desired to estimate, with a specified confidence level, the proportion within the population that have the disease.

Table 5 gives the possible range for the disease prevalence in a population, for three different confidence levels, that can be deduced from the findings of a survey test of a given number of animals. If more precision is required, then it is necessary to test additional randomly selected animals from the same population until the required precision is obtained.

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3. SAMPLING METHODS

In the previous sections concerning the size of the sample required for various purposes, it has been assumed that the sample to be surveyed would be selected at random. Without proper randomisation, we cannot validly extrapolate from the sample we have surveyed to make inferences about the population it is supposed to represent.

Random does not mean haphazard. It has been demonstrated repeatedly that it is virtually impossible to prevent the introduction of some form of bias, either consciously or sub-consciously, in selecting a sample by means other than a randomizing process. To select a proper random sample requires rigorous adherence to a predetermined random selection procedure.

The four common sampling methods are described below. These are often used in various combinations.

3.1 Simple Random Sampling

A simple random sample is a sample selected such that each animal in the population being surveyed has an equal opportunity of being included in the sample. The tables included in this booklet for determining sample size etc. are all based on the selection of a simple random sample. If the sample tested is not a simple random sample these tables do not apply and larger samples will be required.

A random sample may be selected by numbering each animal in the population (such as by ear-tag numbers), writing these numbers on slips of paper, mixing them in a hat, and drawing the required number of slips from the hat to identify the members of the sample. A more convenient way of choosing the numbers is to use a table of random numbers such as Table 6.

3.2 Systematic Sampling

In systematic sampling, animals are selected for inclusion in the sample at equal intervals from the (ordered) population. If a sample of $1/n$ of the population is required, we would start at a randomly selected animal in the first n animals, and thereafter sample every n th animal.

For a systematic sample, the population size need not be known before the survey starts. This is particularly useful when prospectively sampling events such as live births or laboratory accessions. To select a random sample containing $1/n$ of a population, the size of the population must be known (at least approximately).

Systematic sampling will usually be much easier than random sampling and on occasions may be the only practicable method. However, care must be taken in systematic sampling, if cyclic fluctuations exist in the population, that the sample interval does not coincide with the fluctuation interval.

Systematic sampling is appropriate for quality control testing on production lines.

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3.3 Stratified Sampling

The population of a livestock species on any property is normally managed in a number of discrete herds or flocks. Where the sample to be selected is very small in comparison with the total population, it is quite likely that a simple random sample selected from the total population, could, by chance, severely under-represent (or completely exclude) some herds or flocks. A random sample of herds will under-represent animals in large herds, whereas a random sample of animals will under-represent small herds. This can be avoided by stratified sampling, which ensures that each group or unit in the aggregate population is adequately represented.

For example, suppose we wish to sample 58 sheep from a property running 7800 sheep as part of a survey. (A sample of 58 would give 95% confidence of detecting the presence of a condition if present at a prevalence of 5% or greater.) If the 7800 sheep are run in four separate flocks, we should sample from each flock in the same proportion it is to the total population (rounding up to the next whole number in each case).

	<u>number in flock</u>	<u>number sampled</u>
Ewes	3000	$58 \times 3000 \div 7800 = 23$
Maiden ewes	800	6
Weaners	2500	19
Wethers	<u>1500</u>	<u>12</u>
	7800	60

If the animals selected from each flock are a random sample of that flock, we then have a stratified random sample, which can be termed a random sample stratified by flock size of the sheep on that property.

3.4 Cluster Sampling

In cluster sampling, groups or clusters of individuals are chosen for testing. The groups may be chosen at random or systematically, but no control is exercised over membership of each group. Cluster sampling is frequently resorted to where no reliable list of all members of the population is available from which a random sample may be selected.

A random sample of farms on which all relevant animals are tested would be a cluster sample in which the animals on each farm constitute a cluster. While such a sample of farms may be easy to select and convenient for field work, care needs to be exercised in drawing inferences about the disease situation in the animal population, as distinct from the population of farms, from the results. The information obtained will be less accurate than if a sample of the same size, drawn systematically or at random from a list of individual animals, is surveyed. This is because disease statistics, particularly for infectious diseases, are in general more variable between herds than within herds.

Cluster sampling may be applicable to some production line sampling programs such as Salmonella testing of meat products.

3.5 Multistage Sampling

Multistage sampling is a term applied to the selection of a sample in two or more stages. An example would be to randomly select a sample of dairy herds in a State and then to select a random sample of heifers from each of these herds for testing.

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4. TERMS AND CONCEPTS

4.1 Prevalence and Incidence

The terms prevalence and incidence are often confused. Frequently the term 'incidence' is used when clearly what is meant is point prevalence.

The point prevalence of a disease is the proportion of a specified population with the disease at a particular point in time. Thus, in most field surveys, it is the point prevalence that is being determined.

On the other hand, the incidence of a disease is the number of new cases of the disease that occurred during a specified period of time. It is a measure of the rapidity with which a disease is occurring or spreading and is usually expressed as a fraction or percentage of the average number of animals in the population during the time period.

Much of the confusion between prevalence and incidence arises because of a third term, period prevalence. Period prevalence is the total number of cases both new and old that have existed at some time during a specified period of time. It is thus a combination of the point prevalence at the beginning of the period and the incidence of new cases during the period. The period prevalence is of limited usefulness in characterising a disease and is most frequently used in describing the pattern of mild, self-limiting diseases.

4.2 Ratios, Proportions and Rates

'Epidemiology is the science of denominators and, as such, is the rational counter-balance of clinical training, which tends to be preoccupied with numerators. The introduction of the denominator was about as important in medical thinking as the invention of the wheel, and equally revolutionary. The denominator is our foundation for rates, and hence for our sense of proportion and priorities. Denominators are dull but indispensable whenever and wherever we try to draw conclusions about distributions, differences, and dividends - fiscally, socially or medically.' (Stewart, 1970).

In epidemiology, as in most scientific disciplines, there is often a certain lack of precision leading to ambiguity in the terminology used. One reason for this may be that workers in one field borrow terms from another field in which they are not specialists. Another reason is semantics; a word may have more than one meaning in common usage or people may use two words as synonyms when, in fact, their meanings are distinct.

The use of the word rate in epidemiology suffers from these disadvantages; it is borrowed from physics and misinterpreted; it has more than one meaning in the English language; and the most common error - it is used inter-changeably with the term proportion because both are incorrectly assumed to be synonyms for ratio.

Ratio is the expression of the relationship between a numerator and denominator where the two are separate and distinct quantities; neither is included in the other. Usually the numerator and denominator are measured in the same units, although this is not essential. For example,

sex ratio = number of males : number of females

foetal death ratio = $\frac{\text{number of foetal deaths}}{\text{number of live births}}$

An index is a comparative measure of two characteristics frequently expressed as a ratio. For example, weight-height index is a ratio used as a measure of obesity.

Proportion, like a ratio, is a relative frequency, but in this case the numerator is included in the denominator, i.e. the proportion some group is of the whole population. For example,

proportion of males = $\frac{\text{number of males}}{\text{number of males} + \text{number of females}}$

proportion of foetal deaths = $\frac{\text{number of foetal deaths}}{\text{number of conceptions}}$

These relative frequencies can be used as an estimate of the probability of an event occurring.

Rate is an expression for the change in one quantity per unit of another quantity, which is frequently time. However, in many biological processes it is not the absolute change per unit time that is of interest, but the relative change per unit of time and per unit of the organism or population undergoing the change - the relative rate. However, since this kind of rate is the most commonly used, the word 'relative' is frequently omitted unless ambiguity would arise from its omission.

Incidence is an example of a rate. Since incidence is the number of new cases in a time period, it is clearly a rate. It does not refer to the population size. We should more properly use relative incidence to refer to the number of new cases per 1000 animals per year. However, by convention we also refer to this as 'incidence', and let the way in which the result is expressed indicate whether we are dealing with a relative rate or not.

Care needs to be taken in selecting the denominator for a relative rate. It is usual to use the mid-period population size rather than the size at the start or end of the period. In a stable situation this may not matter, but, in an epidemic there can be considerable differences between the rates calculated with different denominators. In such cases it may be better to calculate the incidence for shorter periods. Incidence over a short period is generally referred to as the attack rate.

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By contrast, prevalence, which is the number of cases at a given time expressed as a proportion of the total population at that time, is clearly a proportion and not a rate. The term 'prevalence rate' is erroneous.

4.3 Sensitivity and Specificity

Most field surveys will involve the use of diagnostic tests (generally serological) for the disease in question. In deciding on the test procedures to be used in a large scale survey, some compromise in regard to accuracy for the sake of simplicity, cost, and acceptability of the test procedure will frequently have to be made. However, there is little point in conducting a large scale survey involving considerable effort in obtaining data if it is not known what the test results mean in terms of the true disease situation. The inferences that can be drawn about the disease situation depend on the characteristics of the diagnostic test being used. These characteristics can be defined in terms of repeatability, accuracy, sensitivity and specificity.

Repeatability (sometimes also referred to as precision) is the ability of a test to give consistent results in repeated tests. Repeatability is the converse of variability.

Accuracy is the ability of a test to give a true measure of the item being tested. Accuracy and repeatability are not the same thing. A test can be repeatable without being accurate, but it cannot be accurate without being repeatable. Accuracy has two components, sensitivity and specificity.

Sensitivity is the ability of a test to give a positive result when the animal is diseased. It is measured as the proportion of animals with the disease that give a positive test result.

Specificity is the ability of a test to give a negative result when the animal is not diseased. It is measured as the proportion of disease-free animals that give a negative test result.

Lack of sensitivity leads to false negative results and lack of specificity leads to false positive results.

It is difficult, however, to accurately assess the sensitivity and specificity of a serological test. In general, the sensitivity of a serological test can be estimated by determining the proportion of positive results in those animals that are positive on microbial culture. However, the specificity of a test cannot generally be assessed by determining the proportion of negative results among animals which are negative on microbial culture. This is not only because some animals negative on culture are in fact infected, but, more importantly, because of the very large number of animals it would be necessary to autopsy and take multiple cultures from to accurately determine anything but a very high proportion of false positive results.

Often, in an attempt to assess sensitivity and specificity, the results of one test are compared with those of another test. This does not establish sensitivity and specificity, but only relative sensitivity and relative specificity. Such comparisons are only of value if the sensitivity and specificity of the standard test are known and they approach 100%.

For any given test, sensitivity and specificity are usually inversely related. Thus if the interpretation of test results is altered to increase the sensitivity (to reduce the number of false negative results), then the specificity decreases (and more false positives will result).

The relationship between sensitivity and specificity can be illustrated by the following table:

		health status		
		diseased	not diseased	total
test result	positive	a	b	a+b
	negative	c	d	c+d
	total	a+c	b+d	a+b+c+d = N

a: diseased animals detected by the test (true positives)
 b: non-diseased animals positive to the test (false positives)
 c: diseased animals not detected by the test (false negatives)
 d: non-diseased animals negative to the test (true negatives)
 N: total population

sensitivity = $a/(a+c)$
 specificity = $d/(b+d)$

prevalence = $(a+c)/N$
 apparent prevalence = $(a+b)/N$

predictive value of a positive result = $a/(a+b)$
 predictive value of a negative result = $d/(c+d)$

From this it can be seen that the apparent prevalence observed in a survey will differ from the true prevalence in accordance with the proportion of false positive and false negative results that occur.

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An additional term has also been introduced with this table. The predictive value of a positive result (sometimes also referred to as the validity of the test) is the proportion of the test-positive animals (reactors) that really have the disease. The predictive value is of limited use in comparing tests or interpreting the results of a field survey since it is greatly affected by control measures directed at the disease in question. Although the sensitivity and specificity of a test may be constant during a disease control program, while the true prevalence of the disease is being reduced it is likely that the incidence of false positive animals in the population will be unchanged by the control program. It follows that the observed prevalence of the disease will be comprised of an increasing proportion of false positive reactors as the program progresses. Under these conditions the predictive value of a positive result declines markedly.

4.4 Screening, Surveying, Monitoring and Surveillance

The following definitions are included for the sake of completing this glossary and in an attempt to introduce some precision in the use of these terms.

Screening refers to the testing of a wide cross-section of a population to detect new cases of a disease. The test used usually does not aim at establishing a definitive diagnosis, and so the specificity of the test is not of great importance, and can be compromised for the sake of achieving high sensitivity. The test is usually cheap and easily performed.

The term 'screening test' is also used to refer to a test applied to all samples as a means of cost saving; the negatives are treated as disease free, while the positives undergo a more expensive and/or complex test as a definitive criterion.

Surveying refers to the testing of a selected sample of a population to determine the prevalence of disease within that population.

Surveillance is the continuous observation of a population aimed at early case-finding for disease control purposes. It generally involves the testing of some section of the population that is readily accessible, e.g. abattoir surveillance or milk ring testing for brucellosis. While the results of disease surveillance may indicate trends in the disease status of a population, they cannot generally be taken as absolute measures of the incidence or prevalence of the disease in the population as a whole unless the surveillance is based on random sampling.

Monitoring is an on-going testing program aimed at the early detection of changes in the prevalence of disease which in turn might indicate a change in the incidence of that disease. Monitoring generally carries the implication of not being accompanied by control measures when positives are detected, but may stimulate control action where monitoring reveals an increasing prevalence.

Table 1 : Detecting the Presence of a Disease

Tables 1(a), 1(b) and 1(c) give 90%, 95% and 99% confidence levels respectively.

These tables may be used in two ways:

- (i) To determine the size of the sample (n) that must be tested to have a given confidence (d) of determining whether a disease is present at a minimum prevalence (d/N) in a population of (N) animals.
 - Use the table for the confidence level desired.
 - Choose the column corresponding to the percentage of infected animals to be tested against.
 - Run down the column to the row that is equal to or greater than the population size to find the required sample size.
- (ii) Having tested a random proportion (n/N) of animals in a population of size (N) and found no positives, the upper limit to the number of positives (d) that could be present can be determined.
 - Use the table for the confidence level desired.
 - Choose the column corresponding to the proportion of the population sampled.
 - Read off the upper limit to the possible number of positives from the row corresponding to the population size.

Other values

For values not in the table, either interpolation or the following approximation can be used.

If N is the population size,
 d is the number of positives in the population,
 n is the number sampled
 and α is the desired confidence level (that is, the probability of finding at least one positive in the sample)

Then

for (i) $n \approx (1 - (1 - \alpha)^{1/d}) (N - \frac{d}{2}) + 1$

and (ii) $d \approx (1 - (1 - \alpha)^{1/n}) (N - \frac{n}{2}) + 1$

Although not needed here, it is useful to note that

$$\alpha \approx 1 - (1 - \frac{d}{N - (n-1)/2})^n$$

TABLE 1(a)

- (i) SAMPLE SIZE REQUIRED FOR DETECTING DISEASE
(ii) CONFIDENCE LIMITS FOR NUMBER OF POSITIVES

90%

	(i) percentage of diseased animals in population (d/N) O R (ii) percentage sampled and found clean (n/N)											
population size (N)	50%	40%	30%	25%	20%	15%	10%	5%	2%	1%	0.5%	0.1%
10	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	10	10	10	10
20	4	5	6	7	9	11	14	18	20	20	20	20
30	4	5	6	8	9	12	16	24	30	30	30	30
40	4	5	6	8	10	12	17	27	38	40	40	40
50	4	5	7	8	10	13	18	30	45	50	50	50
60	4	5	7	8	10	13	19	32	52	59	60	60
70	4	5	7	8	10	13	19	34	57	68	70	70
80	4	5	7	8	10	13	20	35	61	76	80	80
90	4	5	7	8	10	14	20	36	65	84	90	90
100	4	5	7	8	10	14	20	37	69	91	100	100
120	4	5	7	8	10	14	20	38	74	103	118	120
140	4	5	7	8	10	14	21	39	78	113	135	140
160	4	5	7	8	10	14	21	40	82	122	152	160
180	4	5	7	8	11	14	21	40	85	130	167	180
200	4	5	7	8	11	14	21	41	87	137	180	200
250	4	5	7	8	11	14	21	42	92	151	211	250
300	4	5	7	8	11	14	22	42	95	161	236	300
350	4	5	7	8	11	14	22	43	98	169	256	350
400	4	5	7	8	11	14	22	43	100	175	274	400
450	4	5	7	8	11	14	22	43	101	180	288	448
500	4	5	7	8	11	14	22	43	102	184	301	496
600	4	5	7	8	11	15	22	44	104	191	321	568
700	4	5	7	8	11	15	22	44	106	196	337	675
800	4	5	7	8	11	15	22	44	107	200	350	756
900	4	5	7	8	11	15	22	44	108	203	360	831
1000	4	5	7	8	11	15	22	44	108	205	369	900
1200	4	5	7	8	11	15	22	45	109	209	382	1024
1400	4	5	7	8	11	15	22	45	110	212	392	1130
1600	4	5	7	8	11	15	22	45	111	214	400	1221
1800	4	5	7	8	11	15	22	45	111	216	406	1299
2000	4	5	7	8	11	15	22	45	111	217	411	1368
3000	4	5	7	8	11	15	22	45	112	221	426	1607
4000	4	5	7	8	11	15	22	45	113	223	434	1750
5000	4	5	7	8	11	15	22	45	113	224	439	1845
6000	4	5	7	8	11	15	22	45	113	225	443	1912
7000	4	5	7	8	11	15	22	45	114	226	445	1962
8000	4	5	7	8	11	15	22	45	114	226	447	2000
9000	4	5	7	9	11	15	22	45	114	227	448	2031
10000	4	5	7	9	11	15	22	45	114	227	449	2056
∞	4	5	7	6	11	15	22	45	114	230	460	2302

The table gives:

- (i) the sample size (n) required to be 90% certain of including at least one positive if the disease is present at the specified level
(ii) the upper limit to the number (d) of diseased animals in a population given that the specified proportion were tested and found to be negative.

Examples:

- (i) Expected proportion of positives is 2%.
The population size is 480 - use 500.
From the table, a sample of 102 is required to be 90% certain of detecting at least one positive.
- (ii) For a population of 1000, a sample of 10% were all found to be negative. From the table, the 90% confidence limit for the number of positives is 22.

TABLE 1(b)

(i) SAMPLE SIZE REQUIRED FOR DETECTING DISEASE

(ii) CONFIDENCE LIMITS FOR NUMBER OF POSITIVES

95%

	(i) percentage of diseased animals in population (d/N) O R (ii) percentage sampled and found clean (n/N)											
population size (N)	50%	40%	30%	25%	20%	15%	10%	5%	2%	1%	0.5%	0.1%
10	4	5	6	7	8	10	10	10	10	10	10	10
20	4	6	7	9	10	12	16	19	20	20	20	20
30	4	6	8	9	11	14	19	26	30	30	30	30
40	5	6	8	10	12	15	21	31	40	40	40	40
50	5	6	8	10	12	16	22	35	48	50	50	50
60	5	6	8	10	12	16	23	38	55	60	60	60
70	5	6	8	10	13	17	24	40	62	70	70	70
80	5	6	8	10	13	17	24	42	68	79	80	80
90	5	6	8	10	13	17	25	43	73	87	90	90
100	5	6	9	10	13	17	25	45	78	96	100	100
120	5	6	9	10	13	18	26	47	86	111	120	120
140	5	6	9	11	13	18	26	48	92	124	139	140
160	5	6	9	11	13	18	27	49	97	136	157	160
180	5	6	9	11	13	18	27	50	101	146	174	180
200	5	6	9	11	13	18	27	51	105	155	190	200
250	5	6	9	11	14	18	27	53	112	175	228	250
300	5	6	9	11	14	18	28	54	117	189	260	300
350	5	6	9	11	14	18	28	54	121	201	287	350
400	5	6	9	11	14	19	28	55	124	211	311	400
450	5	6	9	11	14	19	28	55	127	218	331	450
500	5	6	9	11	14	19	28	56	129	225	349	500
600	5	6	9	11	14	19	28	56	132	235	379	597
700	5	6	9	11	14	19	28	57	134	243	402	691
800	5	6	9	11	14	19	28	57	136	249	421	782
900	5	6	9	11	14	19	28	57	137	254	437	868
1000	5	6	9	11	14	19	29	57	138	258	450	950
1200	5	6	9	11	14	19	29	57	140	264	471	1102
1400	5	6	9	11	14	19	29	58	141	269	487	1236
1600	5	6	9	11	14	19	29	58	142	272	499	1354
1800	5	6	9	11	14	19	29	58	143	275	505	1459
2000	5	6	9	11	14	19	29	58	143	277	517	1553
3000	5	6	9	11	14	19	29	58	145	284	542	1895
4000	5	6	9	11	14	19	29	58	146	288	556	2108
5000	5	6	9	11	14	19	29	59	147	290	564	2253
6000	5	6	9	11	14	19	29	59	147	291	569	2358
7000	5	6	9	11	14	19	29	59	147	292	573	2437
8000	5	6	9	11	14	19	29	59	147	293	576	2498
9000	5	6	9	11	14	19	29	59	148	294	579	2548
10000	5	6	9	11	14	19	29	59	148	294	581	2588
∞	5	6	9	11	14	19	29	59	149	299	598	2995

The table gives:

- (i) the sample size (n) required to be 95% certain of including at least one positive if the disease is present at the specified level
- (ii) the upper limit to the number (d) of diseased animals in a population given that the specified proportion were tested and found to be negative.

Examples:

- (i) Expected proportion of positives is 2%.
The population size is 480 - use 500.
From the table, a sample of 129 is required to be 95% certain of detecting at least one positive.
- (ii) For a population of 1000, a sample of 10% were all found to be negative. From the table, the 95% confidence limit for the number of positives is 29.

95%

TABLE 1(c)

(i) SAMPLE SIZE REQUIRED FOR DETECTING DISEASE

(ii) CONFIDENCE LIMITS FOR NUMBER OF POSITIVES

99%

	0.5%	0.1%
10	10	10
20	20	20
30	30	30
40	40	40
50	50	50
60	60	60
70	70	70
80	80	80
90	90	90
100	100	100
120	120	120
139	140	140
157	160	160
174	180	180
190	200	200
228	250	250
260	300	300
287	350	350
311	400	400
331	450	450
349	500	500
379	597	597
402	691	691
421	782	782
437	868	868
450	950	950
471	1102	1102
487	1236	1236
499	1354	1354
509	1459	1459
517	1553	1553
542	1895	1895
556	2108	2108
564	2253	2253
569	2358	2358
573	2437	2437
576	2498	2498
579	2548	2548
581	2588	2588
598	2995	2995

population size (N)	(i) percentage of diseased animals in population (d/N) O R (ii) percentage sampled and found clean (n/N)											
	50%	40%	30%	25%	20%	15%	10%	5%	2%	1%	0.5%	0.1%
10	5	6	7	10	10	10	10	10	10	10	10	10
20	6	8	10	11	13	15	18	20	20	20	20	20
30	6	8	11	13	15	19	23	30	30	30	30	30
40	7	8	11	13	16	21	27	36	40	40	40	40
50	7	9	12	14	17	22	29	42	50	50	50	50
60	7	9	12	14	18	23	31	47	60	60	60	60
70	7	9	12	15	18	24	33	51	68	70	70	70
80	7	9	12	15	19	24	34	54	76	80	80	80
90	7	9	12	15	19	25	35	57	83	90	90	90
100	7	9	13	15	19	25	36	59	90	100	100	100
120	7	9	13	15	19	26	37	63	102	118	120	120
140	7	9	13	16	20	26	38	67	113	135	140	140
160	7	9	13	16	20	26	39	69	122	151	160	160
180	7	9	13	16	20	27	39	71	129	166	179	180
200	7	9	13	16	20	27	40	73	136	180	198	200
250	7	9	13	16	20	27	41	78	160	210	244	250
300	7	9	13	16	21	28	42	80	168	256	325	350
350	7	9	13	16	21	28	42	81	174	273	360	400
400	7	9	13	16	21	28	42	82	179	288	392	450
450	7	9	13	16	21	28	42	83	183	300	421	500
500	7	9	13	16	21	28	43	84	190	321	470	600
600	7	9	13	16	21	28	43	85	195	336	512	700
700	7	9	13	16	21	28	43	85	199	349	546	798
800	7	9	13	16	21	28	43	86	202	359	576	895
900	7	9	13	16	21	28	43	86	204	368	601	990
1000	7	9	13	16	21	28	43	87	208	381	642	1175
1200	7	9	13	16	21	29	44	87	211	391	674	1348
1400	7	9	13	16	21	29	44	88	213	399	699	1510
1600	7	9	13	16	21	29	44	88	215	405	720	1661
1800	7	9	13	16	21	29	44	88	216	410	737	1800
2000	7	9	13	16	21	29	44	89	222	433	821	2735
3000	7	10	13	16	21	29	44	89	223	438	840	3009
4000	7	10	13	16	21	29	44	90	224	442	852	3214
5000	7	10	13	16	21	29	44	90	225	444	861	3373
6000	7	10	13	16	21	29	44	90	225	446	868	3500
7000	7	10	13	16	21	29	44	90	226	447	874	3604
8000	7	10	13	16	21	29	44	90	226	448	878	3689
9000	7	10	13	16	21	29	44	90	228	459	919	4603
10000	7	10	13	16	21	29	44	90	228	459	919	4603
∞	7	10	13	16	21	29	44	90	228	459	919	4603

The table gives:

- (i) the sample size (n) required to be 99% certain of including at least one positive if the disease is present at the specified level
- (ii) the upper limit to the number (d) of diseased animals in a population given that the specified proportion were tested and found to be negative.

Examples:

- (i) Expected proportion of positives is 2%.
The population size is 480 - use 500.
From the table, a sample of 183 is required to be 99% certain of detecting at least one positive.
- (ii) For a population of 1000, a sample of 10% were all found to be negative. From the table, the 99% confidence limit for the number of positives is 43.

Table 2: Chances of Detecting Positives With Various Intensities of Monitoring

These tables show the effect of different levels of monitoring on the chance of detecting infection that is present at a low level.

Tabulated is the probability of finding at least one positive, given that we are sampling at one of 5 levels (20%, 30%, 40%, 50%, 60%) for populations with a size from 10 to 100, and containing 1 to 8 positives. Under these conditions, with population size greater than 100, the probabilities quickly reach their asymptotic limit for large populations, and this is also given.

Other values can easily be calculated from the approximation mentioned in the notes to Table 1.

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TABLE 2: THE CHANCES OF DETECTING A SMALL NUMBER OF POSITIVES

These tables give the probability of detecting at least one positive for different sampling intensities and numbers of positives in the population.

TABLE 2(a): 20% SAMPLING

population size	number sampled	number of positives in the population							
		1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
10	2	0.200	0.376	0.533	0.667	0.778	0.867	0.933	0.978
20	4	0.200	0.366	0.509	0.624	0.716	0.783	0.852	0.898
30	6	0.200	0.366	0.501	0.612	0.702	0.773	0.830	0.874
40	8	0.200	0.366	0.496	0.607	0.694	0.764	0.815	0.863
50	10	0.200	0.363	0.496	0.603	0.689	0.758	0.813	0.857
60	12	0.200	0.363	0.495	0.603	0.686	0.755	0.805	0.853
70	14	0.200	0.362	0.494	0.599	0.684	0.752	0.807	0.850
80	16	0.200	0.362	0.493	0.596	0.683	0.751	0.804	0.847
90	18	0.200	0.362	0.492	0.597	0.682	0.749	0.803	0.846
100	20	0.200	0.362	0.492	0.597	0.682	0.748	0.802	0.844
=	=	0.200	0.360	0.488	0.590	0.672	0.736	0.790	0.832

TABLE 2(b): 30% SAMPLING

population size	number sampled	number of positives in the population							
		1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
10	3	0.300	0.533	0.706	0.833	0.917	0.967	0.992	0.994
20	6	0.300	0.521	0.681	0.793	0.871	0.923	0.956	0.976
30	9	0.300	0.517	0.672	0.782	0.857	0.909	0.943	0.965
40	12	0.300	0.515	0.668	0.776	0.851	0.902	0.936	0.960
50	15	0.300	0.514	0.666	0.773	0.847	0.898	0.933	0.956
60	18	0.300	0.514	0.665	0.770	0.844	0.895	0.930	0.954
70	21	0.300	0.513	0.663	0.769	0.842	0.893	0.928	0.952
80	24	0.300	0.513	0.663	0.768	0.841	0.892	0.927	0.951
90	27	0.300	0.512	0.662	0.767	0.840	0.891	0.926	0.950
100	30	0.300	0.512	0.661	0.766	0.839	0.890	0.925	0.949
=	=	0.300	0.510	0.657	0.760	0.832	0.882	0.916	0.942

TABLE 2(c): 40% SAMPLING

population size	number sampled	number of positives in the population							
		1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
10	4	0.400	0.667	0.833	0.929	0.976	0.994	0.994	0.994
20	8	0.400	0.653	0.807	0.896	0.949	0.976	0.990	0.994
30	12	0.400	0.646	0.795	0.886	0.940	0.969	0.984	0.993
40	16	0.400	0.646	0.795	0.884	0.935	0.965	0.981	0.990
50	20	0.400	0.645	0.793	0.881	0.933	0.963	0.980	0.989
60	24	0.400	0.644	0.791	0.879	0.931	0.961	0.978	0.986
70	28	0.400	0.643	0.790	0.878	0.930	0.960	0.977	0.987
80	32	0.400	0.643	0.789	0.877	0.929	0.959	0.977	0.987
90	36	0.400	0.643	0.789	0.876	0.928	0.959	0.976	0.987
100	40	0.400	0.642	0.788	0.876	0.927	0.958	0.976	0.986
=	=	0.400	0.640	0.784	0.870	0.922	0.953	0.972	0.983

TABLE 2(d): 50% SAMPLING

population size	number sampled	number of positives in the population							
		1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
10	5	0.500	0.778	0.917	0.976	0.994	0.994	0.994	0.994
20	10	0.500	0.761	0.895	0.957	0.984	0.994	0.994	0.994
30	15	0.500	0.759	0.886	0.950	0.979	0.992	0.994	0.994
40	20	0.500	0.756	0.885	0.947	0.976	0.990	0.994	0.994
50	25	0.500	0.755	0.883	0.945	0.975	0.989	0.994	0.994
60	30	0.500	0.754	0.881	0.944	0.974	0.988	0.994	0.994
70	35	0.500	0.754	0.880	0.943	0.973	0.986	0.994	0.994
80	40	0.500	0.753	0.880	0.942	0.973	0.987	0.994	0.994
90	45	0.500	0.753	0.879	0.942	0.972	0.987	0.994	0.994
100	50	0.500	0.753	0.879	0.941	0.972	0.987	0.994	0.994
=	=	0.500	0.750	0.875	0.937	0.969	0.984	0.992	0.996

TABLE 2(e): 60% SAMPLING

population size	number sampled	number of positives in the population							
		1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
10	6	0.600	0.867	0.967	0.994	0.994	0.994	0.994	0.994
20	12	0.600	0.853	0.951	0.986	0.994	0.994	0.994	0.994
30	18	0.600	0.848	0.946	0.982	0.994	0.994	0.994	0.994
40	24	0.600	0.846	0.943	0.980	0.993	0.994	0.994	0.994
50	30	0.600	0.845	0.942	0.979	0.993	0.994	0.994	0.994
60	36	0.600	0.844	0.941	0.978	0.992	0.994	0.994	0.994
70	42	0.600	0.843	0.940	0.978	0.992	0.994	0.994	0.994
80	48	0.600	0.843	0.940	0.977	0.992	0.994	0.994	0.994
90	54	0.600	0.842	0.939	0.977	0.991	0.994	0.994	0.994
100	60	0.600	0.842	0.939	0.977	0.991	0.994	0.994	0.994
=	=	0.600	0.840	0.936	0.974	0.990	0.996	0.996	0.996

Example:

A 40% sample from a herd of 20 animals would have a 98% chance of including at least one positive if 6 were present in the herd.

Table 3: Probability of Failure to Detect Diseased Animals

The table gives the probability of failure to detect diseased animals from an 'infinite' population with the specified proportion of positives in the population.

prevalence	number of animals in sample tested								
	5	10	25	50	75	100	200	250	500
1%	0.951	0.904	0.778	0.605	0.471	0.366	0.134	0.081	0.007
2%	0.904	0.817	0.603	0.364	0.220	0.133	0.018	0.006	0.000
3%	0.859	0.737	0.467	0.218	0.102	0.048	0.002	0.000	
4%	0.815	0.665	0.360	0.130	0.047	0.017	0.000		
5%	0.774	0.599	0.277	0.077	0.021	0.006	0.000		
6%	0.734	0.539	0.213	0.045	0.010	0.002	0.000		
7%	0.696	0.484	0.163	0.027	0.004	0.001	0.000		
8%	0.659	0.434	0.124	0.015	0.002	0.000			
9%	0.624	0.389	0.095	0.009	0.001	0.000			
10%	0.590	0.349	0.072	0.005	0.000				
12%	0.528	0.279	0.041	0.002	0.000				
14%	0.470	0.221	0.023	0.001	0.000				
16%	0.418	0.175	0.013	0.000					
18%	0.371	0.137	0.007	0.000					
20%	0.328	0.107	0.004	0.000					
24%	0.254	0.064	0.001	0.000					
28%	0.193	0.037	0.000						
32%	0.145	0.021	0.000						
36%	0.107	0.012	0.000						
40%	0.078	0.006	0.000						
50%	0.031	0.001	0.000						
60%	0.010	0.000							

While this table is similar to Table 2 in that it shows the effect of sample size on the probability of detecting at least one diseased animal, it approaches the problem differently.

The table assumes a specified number of samples (n) taken from an infinite population with a proportion (θ) of positives. The probability that we fail to detect any positives in the sample is simply:

$$(1 - \theta)^n$$

and it is this function that is tabulated.

Example:

Tests of a series of random samples of 25 animals from a large population in which 10% of animals are positive would fail to detect any positives in 7% of such sample-groups.

Table 4: Sample Size for Estimation of Disease Prevalence

The table gives the approximate sample size required to estimate a prevalence in a large population with the desired fixed width confidence limits.

expected prevalence	level of confidence								
	90%			95%			99%		
	desired accuracy			desired accuracy			desired accuracy		
	10	5	1	10	5	1	10	5	1
10%	24	97	2435	35	138	3457	60	239	5971
20%	43	173	4329	61	246	6147	106	425	10616
30%	57	227	5682	81	323	8067	139	557	13933
40%	65	260	6494	92	369	9220	159	637	15923
50%	68	271	6764	96	384	9604	166	663	16587
60%	65	260	6494	92	369	9220	159	637	15923
70%	57	227	5682	81	323	8067	139	557	13933
80%	43	173	4329	61	246	6147	106	425	10616
90%	24	97	2435	35	138	3457	60	239	5971

The table assumes a knowledge of the approximate result. If in doubt, either use the 0.5 figure, or use the 0.2 figure, but take additional samples if necessary.

When sampling from a finite population of size N , an adjustment to account for this can be made by calculating the sample size n_{∞} above and calculating

$$\frac{1}{n} = \frac{1}{n_{\infty}} + \frac{1}{N}$$

to give n , the approximate sample size required.

The table is based on the normal approximation to the binomial distribution and Appendix A.2 gives further details.

Another way to estimate the sample size required is to use Table 5 in reverse:

Choose the desired confidence width, and estimate the values of N that correspond to this width at both p and $1-p$, where p is the expected proportion. Use the larger of the two. If the population is not large, the same correction can be made as above.

Example:

We want to estimate the prevalence of a disease in a herd of 1127 animals to within 5% at the 95% confidence level. We expect that the prevalence would be about 40%.

From the table we see that 369 animals would need to be sampled from a large population, and we correct this for the 'finite population' by calculating

$$\frac{1}{n} = \frac{1}{369} + \frac{1}{1127} = \frac{1}{278}$$

Thus testing of 278 animals would be sufficient.

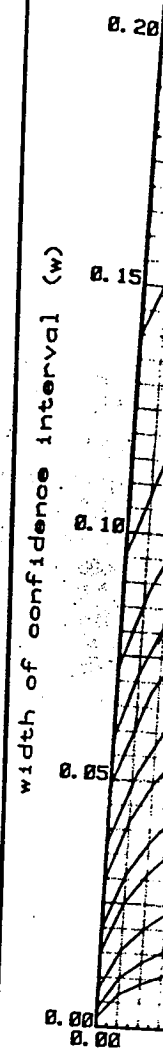
Table 5: Estimation of Disease Prevalence

These graphs give the width of the upper and lower confidence limits for use in estimating disease prevalence from a simple random survey. The confidence limits have been calculated so that the tails are of equal probability. Thus the graphs can be used to find either the 90%, 95% or 99% two-sided limits or the 95%, 97.5% or 99.5% one-sided confidence limits.

- For a sample of size n , in which a proportion p were found to be positive, calculate $q = 1-p$, the proportion negative
- The upper limit to the prevalence estimate is found by reading off the graph for the appropriate p and n , and adding this amount to the estimate p
- The lower limit is found by reading off the graph for the appropriate q and n , and subtracting the amount from the estimate p .

This table has been drawn up for use in estimating prevalence in a very large population. For a small population, the width of the confidence intervals should be multiplied by a finite correction factor $\sqrt{1-f}$, where f is the proportion of the population sampled:

Proportion sampled	(f)	0	.1	.2	.3	.4	.5	.6	.7	.8	.9	1.0
Correction factor	($\sqrt{1-f}$)	1	.95	.90	.84	.78	.71	.64	.55	.45	.32	.0



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TABLE 5(a)
BINOMIAL CONFIDENCE LIMITS

90% two sided
95.0% one sided

or confidence
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find either
.5% or 99.5%

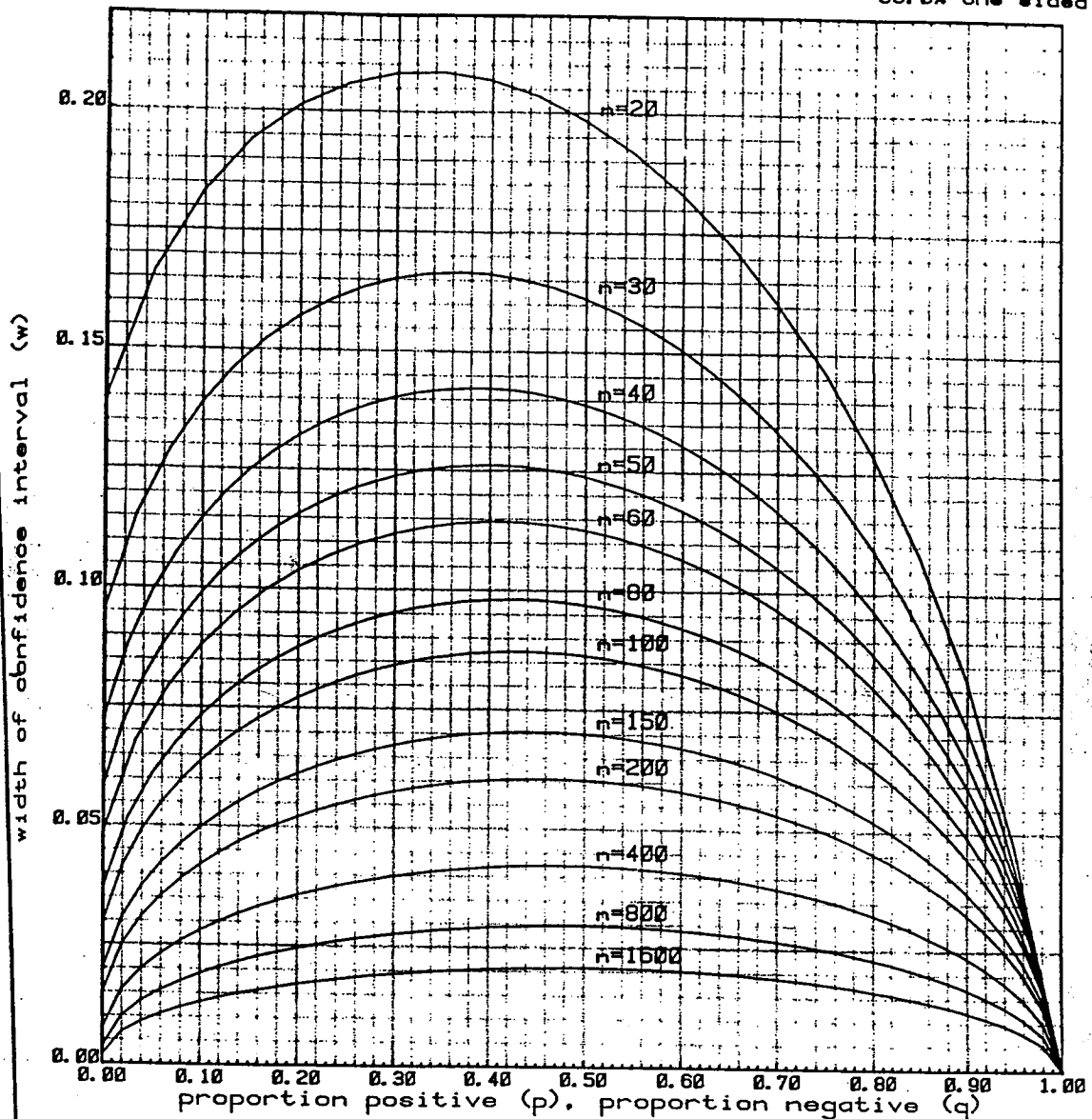
were found to
negative

is found by
n, and adding

graph for the
count from the

ting prevalence
he width of the
nite correction
on sampled:

.7	.8	.9	1.0
.55	.45	.32	.0



The table gives the width (w) of two sided 90% confidence limits for a prevalence given an observed proportion (p) of positives with different sample sizes (n).

Examples

In a sample of 60 animals, 12 were found to be positive

Calculate $p = 12/60 = .2$ and $q = 1 - p = .8$

Read off

upper width of 0.104 at p
and lower width of 0.080 at q

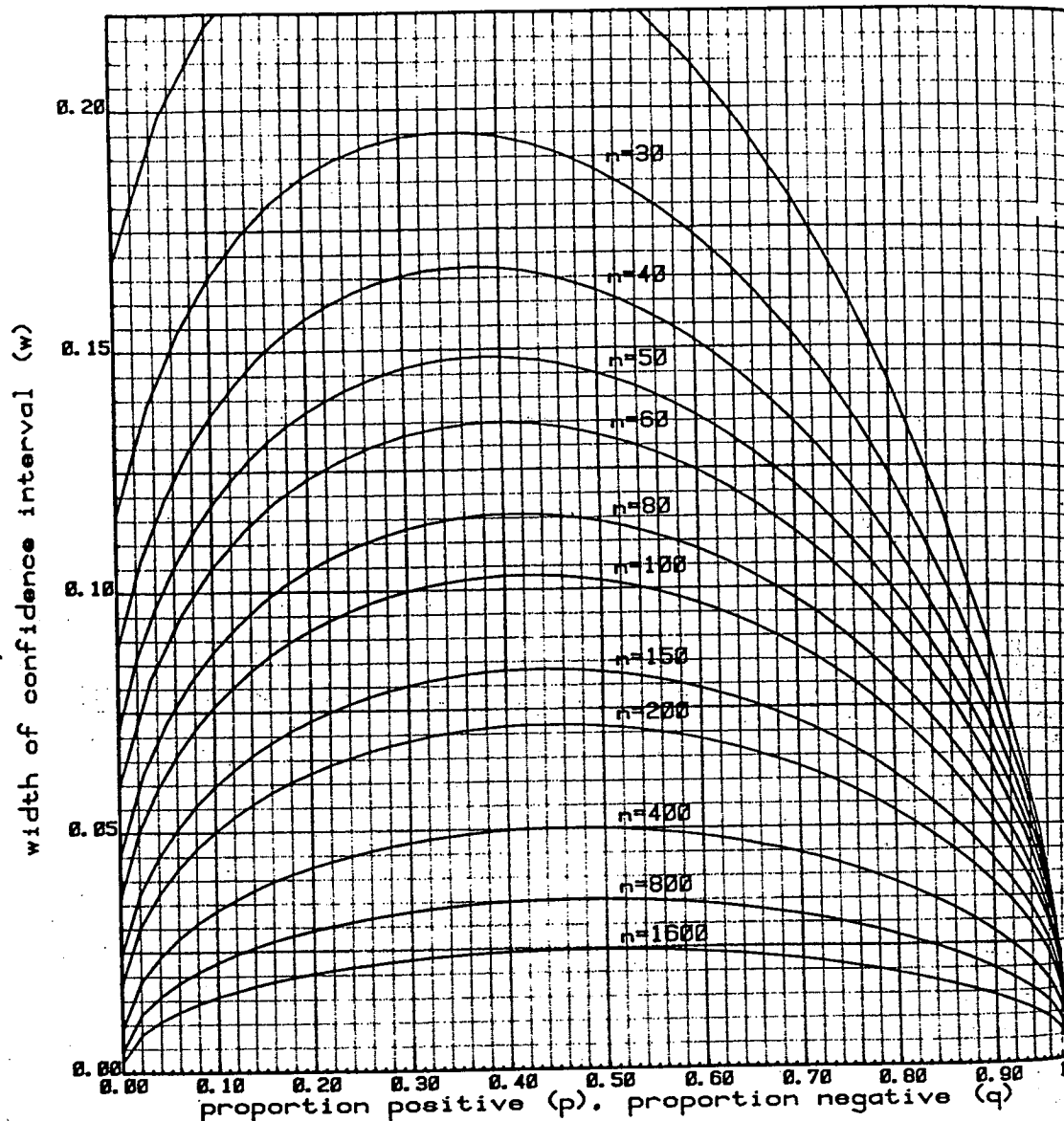
$$0.104 + 0.2 = 0.304$$

$$0.2 - 0.08 = 0.120$$

90% confidence limits for the prevalence are (0.120 - 0.304)

TABLE 5 (b)
BINOMIAL CONFIDENCE LIMITS

95% two sided
97.5% one sided



The table gives the width (w) of two-sided 95% confidence limits for a prevalence given an observed proportion (p) of positives with different sample sizes (n).

Example:

In a sample of 60 animals, 12 were found to be positive

Calculate $p = 12/60 = .2$ and $q = 1 - p = .8$

Read off

upper width of 0.123 at p
and lower width of 0.092 at q

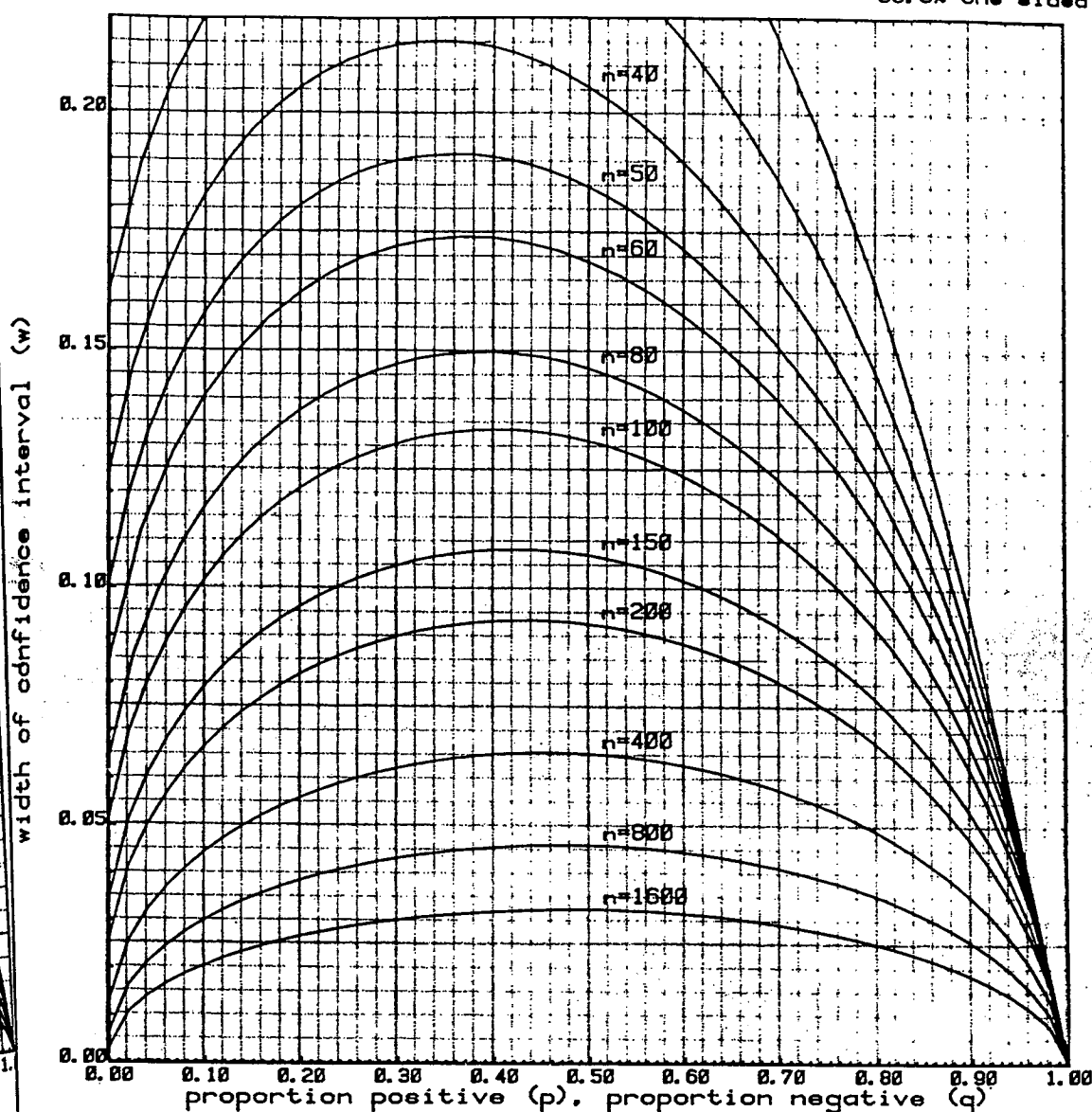
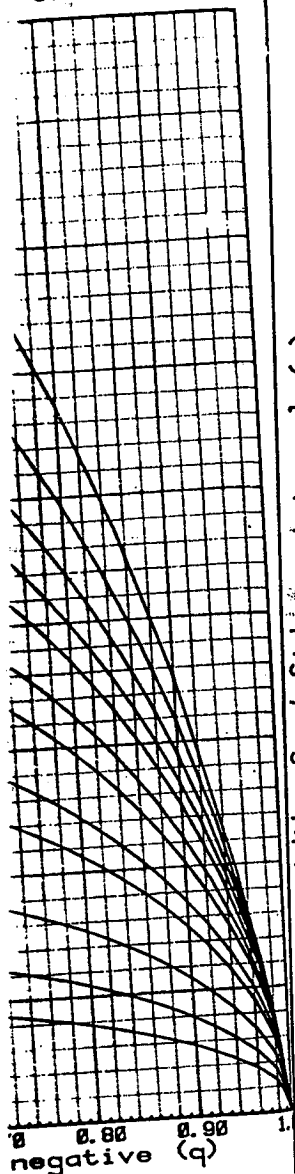
$2 \times 0.123 = 0.246$
 $2 \times 0.092 = 0.184$

95% confidence limits for the prevalence are (0.108 - 0.323)

95% two sided
97.5% one sided

TABLE 5(c)
BINOMIAL CONFIDENCE LIMITS

99% two sided
99.5% one sided



confidence
rtion (p)

The table gives the width (w) of two-sided 99% confidence limits for a prevalence given an observed proportion (p) of positives with different sample sizes (n).

Example:

In a sample of 60 animals, 12 were found to be positive

Calculate $p = 12/60 = .2$ and $q = 1 - p = .8$

Read off

upper width of 0.162 at p
and lower width of 0.113 at q

99% confidence limits for the prevalence are (0.087 - 0.362)

0.108 - 0.323)

Table 6: Random Numbers

The table consists of sets of two-digit random numbers. It can be used in selecting a random sample from any population of known size.

To select a sample of a required size, start at any point in the table and move systematically down columns and along rows until a sample of the required size is obtained. Where a number is duplicated in the group selected it should be ignored and the next random number in the sequence used. Similarly if a number falls outside the range of the population size it should be skipped over and next random number used. This does not affect the randomness of the sample.

Examples:

- i) To select a random sample of 10 from a herd of 40

- . Number the animals 1 to 40
- . Start at any point in the random number table
- . Work down the column writing down each number that is from 1 to 40 but rejecting repetitions until you have ten numbers.

To avoid 'wasting' random numbers, subtract 40 from any numbers over 40 and use the result if it is 40 or less. But if the result is again over 40, do not repeat this process. The numbers would then only go from 1 to 19 and there would be no chance of selecting 20 to 40.

In the sequence of random numbers below, the ten animals chosen are underlined. Note that both 6 and 13 were duplicated in the list.

random number: 98 05 89 80 23 64 53 60 75 84 06 88 06 11 13 16 81
 subtract 40: 58 49 40 24 13 20 35 44 48

The sample would comprise animals 5, 6, 11, 13, 16, 20, 23, 24, 35 and 40.

- ii) To sample a tenth of the sheep on a property where these are in three mobs of 357, 117 and 310 respectively:

- . Using the method of (i), random samples of 36, 12 and 31 respectively may be selected from the three mobs to give a stratified sample
- . Alternatively use pairs of two-digit random numbers to create a number between 0 and 999 by ignoring the fourth digit.

For random numbers:

1-357 - first paddock, sheep 1-357
 401-517 - second paddock, sheep 1-117
 601-910 - third paddock, sheep 1-310

Ignore any other numbers.

- iii) To sample an eighth of the items from a continuous production process:

- . Start at any point in the random number table
- . If the last digit in the two-digit random number is 0 or 9 ignore it, and use the next random number
- . Sample the item if the last digit is 2.

TABLE 6:

RANDOM NUMBERS

A1

85 36	06 90	48 32	40 29	16 68	44 75	18 65	69 79	77 58	17 32	59 57	30 35
52 94	38 68	59 50	59 09	57 13	87 49	65 52	46 08	77 43	76 78	46 38	55 80
29 50	05 63	70 53	74 49	10 31	82 40	83 34	06 38	05 25	93 31	99 85	68 64
83 88	19 16	51 38	82 91	95 07	20 09	74 20	54 49	35 58	47 09	97 04	57 77
90 51	92 16	14 32	66 52	88 20	05 55	25 92	95 10	51 33	54 51	11 09	38 03
60 20	17 24	48 65	28 20	74 60	80 24	75 73	00 74	29 03	62 01	09 40	40 67
63 09	19 86	24 94	98 53	03 87	11 00	80 03	53 73	24 74	03 33	93 08	86 02
64 82	30 48	54 07	31 60	30 54	08 56	06 45	74 97	60 42	10 63	52 77	66 94
98 64	13 47	64 96	03 62	55 23	55 46	08 03	02 55	06 66	38 65	07 07	74 41
85 40	00 09	63 57	53 09	82 73	18 90	49 73	05 04	55 71	65 85	32 97	99 86
60 36	57 53	96 30	10 81	61 07	89 82	59 92	24 18	03 77	61 08	83 64	65 76
14 98	03 81	15 75	44 63	14 15	01 46	76 25	50 81	58 66	19 58	11 06	59 35
75 05	23 52	20 97	25 54	79 97	96 68	03 39	53 54	66 03	66 16	39 84	54 95
11 06	18 55	46 40	62 06	89 33	74 63	57 54	43 18	88 13	10 21	99 82	86 41
92 15	36 49	72 99	74 93	30 37	28 11	34 60	51 45	97 64	32 39	37 64	45 06
83 16	21 65	22 24	13 24	89 85	15 69	24 43	18 02	11 16	66 36	30 94	40 14
11 12	29 72	36 01	25 20	26 33	43 66	42 16	68 77	25 14	08 18	05 02	73 04
08 13	37 10	67 19	15 69	67 82	47 46	87 34	65 56	62 57	54 38	16 16	32 92
57 02	64 42	64 53	99 48	64 73	31 53	75 63	47 48	10 51	56 31	65 03	83 98
01 08	76 51	25 14	05 89	83 12	31 38	48 20	59 70	85 96	24 92	65 43	10 33
00 45	59 03	80 06	85 50	56 09	82 95	95 01	74 18	73 39	97 25	57 09	35 34
64 37	68 72	66 29	49 36	86 45	43 70	27 10	85 40	17 28	89 94	39 89	29 31
71 43	66 59	30 99	75 82	57 35	15 97	38 97	14 67	12 52	46 20	39 85	05 00
70 64	57 58	26 45	10 88	48 51	43 82	12 90	39 20	14 70	99 61	04 50	45 36
02 80	30 15	98 42	23 92	37 47	34 39	32 91	27 23	94 43	73 36	13 07	99 62
31 09	01 26	91 76	12 99	94 94	31 29	73 15	20 10	87 44	28 76	12 35	50 18
02 78	94 89	22 36	93 56	19 44	86 46	19 82	63 23	43 44	63 51	94 26	40 96
40 62	86 74	85 52	05 60	62 42	64 15	60 75	03 50	52 48	12 21	69 20	98 20
85 35	20 52	24 46	40 60	43 29	93 77	33 20	76 47	34 10	25 30	83 89	69 12
67 03	13 47	72 02	21 11	77 07	11 44	25 39	68 44	04 32	77 49	27 20	63 58
05 99	95 46	38 94	89 24	84 24	23 88	82 77	98 06	83 63	65 75	40 76	60 11
59 34	18 06	02 60	34 79	11 27	76 73	98 93	05 88	67 04	49 68	88 35	69 01
59 18	82 27	66 87	00 99	98 17	40 04	72 78	89 06	03 91	43 49	91 08	40 78
09 05	34 87	91 83	94 74	79 04	50 78	17 54	80 11	90 34	87 47	24 55	98 51
45 64	87 99	58 57	64 74	12 90	30 26	43 09	23 13	20 32	79 88	38 30	08 41
39 97	13 69	95 05	46 14	91 70	94 68	02 75	64 16	39 74	25 30	03 89	91 48
90 21	46 51	12 87	00 69	86 77	57 86	15 21	53 81	25 46	38 96	63 04	28 60
18 79	67 55	52 78	00 91	46 71	04 43	57 78	60 97	45 72	00 24	67 43	08 92
72 70	25 83	26 49	88 66	59 78	16 31	20 30	75 52	08 23	39 74	06 53	20 19
48 41	24 67	96 31	97 15	56 93	87 13	28 90	84 16	48 33	92 34	54 16	82 21
14 65	97 52	86 40	48 95	07 09	57 82	02 30	40 26	84 21	12 52	79 08	64 78
82 57	02 78	77 86	71 36	04 16	44 22	01 78	45 67	07 62	99 16	24 94	39 65
74 95	31 06	38 21	20 72	43 76	85 53	41 26	04 33	33 00	80 51	10 17	25 43
92 89	64 97	55 42	84 38	86 24	87 31	54 70	60 24	06 25	13 79	59 87	79 60
61 14	57 05	58 48	65 67	91 06	46 37	63 04	71 81	42 94	80 09	97 89	44 23
93 65	54 34	80 93	80 29	63 29	18 90	79 59	83 75	30 64	94 52	07 06	62 20
73 82	50 10	44 44	84 55	32 46	22 90	26 73	77 16	73 33	62 48	54 12	85 13
35 07	75 94	38 17	15 51	63 97	39 08	02 98	08 19	93 07	43 65	70 99	08 41
49 87	65 35	48 06	85 63	41 94	47 17	64 79	60 92	15 33	84 96	87 03	68 17
55 07	31 64	23 29	33 82	36 45	73 89	65 89	05 63	44 16	00 59	54 27	11 29
33 25	28 65	12 62	09 05	98 62	31 44	11 20	86 53	76 98	32 76	44 58	23 21
03 79	76 72	15 29	28 16	07 33	57 79	56 75	49 87	23 87	70 63	55 90	37 18
86 04	88 56	62 01	25 93	08 98	35 74	85 83	74 97	17 68	27 92	79 06	45 71
48 96	04 43	04 12	01 09	50 52	41 69	75 60	45 17	99 54	83 87	97 56	21 04
04 34	80 62	92 44	85 75	65 16	49 04	92 96	34 92	48 47	98 93	98 30	45 43
94 75	65 44	60 98	32 68	92 26	76 97	84 95	29 37	42 71	93 64	12 22	83 16
26 91	54 07	56 43	63 29	30 36	30 42	24 92	01 57	16 31	59 83	85 58	09 09
78 10	53 05	29 47	36 21	11 85	07 30	71 60	65 47	35 83	96 09	94 08	98 88
24 69	40 70	44 21	83 63	97 38	86 25	77 05	65 28	47 80	47 68	82 71	00 14
92 61	23 07	25 80	43 65	98 85	28 02	68 76	43 63	10 37	62 52	01 13	30 55
59 92	94 17	26 40	80 92	41 80	29 24	97 63	52 18	06 77	91 33	11 32	29 59
97 72	51 51	88 39	27 84	53 20	31 23	03 84	08 22	08 41	91 68	33 13	85 93
25 80	11 89	10 49	29 31	28 63	91 53	98 19	36 29	63 54	89 94	38 71	00 44
03 23	54 29	68 73	94 42	35 50	62 39	56 98	65 45	47 65	48 38	48 08	67 30
37 09	68 82	34 32	60 66	41 26	62 23	34 15	47 35	87 86	46 10	33 53	05 41
65 44	80 16	35 00	34 97	46 75	76 81	39 09	20 94	92 45	87 56	32 27	36 74
95 33	13 86	46 62	09 81	44 09	74 57	57 36	25 48	16 67	15 71	10 36	48 78
31 51	59 38	85 88	07 87	79 89	98 95	45 76	24 53	77 85	39 15	63 56	32 53
74 28	65 63	80 32	40 46	36 18	58 97	51 12	70 56	61 01	64 23	85 51	68 97
94 68	05 36	54 16	48 14	60 78	88 10	29 23	70 60	93 35	06 98	23 90	20 79

TABLE 6:

RANDOM NUMBERS

B2

10	66	53	13	45	41	18	77	97	10	70	12	36	08	24	76	10	37	01	67	59	45	46	87
74	04	55	13	48	92	56	99	70	39	18	11	76	99	87	46	15	94	22	43	56	15	24	91
18	02	78	59	22	12	77	31	77	08	25	01	96	57	75	26	27	00	31	32	49	31	10	94
97	19	10	79	78	35	10	32	23	35	53	32	69	16	44	21	15	44	04	06	35	81	59	07
50	91	92	01	00	21	74	20	78	13	14	97	80	66	55	71	97	83	98	14	50	00	00	13
73	70	12	12	29	20	01	66	84	45	45	61	13	04	27	96	92	93	06	66	44	03	51	88
86	72	15	57	41	82	13	15	16	39	02	21	67	75	64	21	71	58	86	68	36	32	14	50
10	79	16	94	14	14	27	63	71	03	18	49	48	69	87	61	16	73	72	73	89	89	86	04
81	21	07	60	01	74	74	68	47	94	29	73	90	36	62	86	89	94	43	28	30	13	62	51
73	79	08	78	11	06	44	77	92	76	21	99	07	80	01	36	23	50	33	41	28	69	22	89
50	27	83	26	35	73	57	81	15	55	50	22	97	13	11	74	23	82	82	39	56	47	54	00
42	70	87	50	67	04	48	80	22	91	20	93	20	47	69	19	77	14	52	11	89	12	77	56
13	99	47	30	23	73	90	64	60	34	45	90	47	17	55	50	75	44	07	37	67	86	80	13
72	92	83	11	07	60	99	39	66	48	90	08	08	17	47	52	42	74	93	83	17	39	39	39
60	13	88	18	10	76	55	23	10	54	59	66	69	23	86	98	38	57	53	89	97	90	35	22
23	53	07	75	91	48	74	34	96	90	27	80	69	36	07	11	78	36	09	50	13	74	24	47
09	53	16	47	16	88	30	14	47	33	53	06	05	51	20	73	03	00	30	83	06	00	06	83
61	99	15	33	16	79	83	80	14	20	51	28	41	68	41	48	60	39	44	20	25	93	28	58
19	75	97	23	31	43	37	39	61	17	81	21	28	23	57	07	58	59	33	76	16	58	13	66
42	89	92	39	09	28	49	27	54	04	73	68	94	79	09	79	22	39	65	76	82	60	35	68
41	42	90	11	75	51	54	18	28	60	36	21	59	43	51	86	87	51	12	90	62	19	60	63
66	11	53	82	38	11	32	67	95	91	49	51	43	23	01	48	43	80	84	02	53	10	53	45
11	67	95	97	89	73	58	11	22	74	64	09	90	00	28	10	20	09	24	06	64	69	19	32
65	24	18	74	82	92	70	60	68	34	34	13	10	00	27	65	27	32	36	93	98	66	62	77
77	30	65	22	71	77	74	20	48	84	26	85	66	23	02	91	98	65	63	22	87	02	02	55
61	14	42	43	08	79	45	38	01	25	88	63	38	94	27	04	38	43	10	77	58	44	42	72
47	52	04	05	88	12	12	39	22	96	56	02	02	38	73	33	32	76	89	73	21	02	79	32
98	23	15	58	16	11	41	17	30	48	01	07	93	31	09	41	66	54	98	36	70	83	13	40
29	28	79	94	58	26	38	86	55	49	87	28	34	99	57	92	24	73	29	18	90	47	40	17
66	57	28	41	17	21	98	43	35	99	18	54	33	84	01	34	93	29	55	31	48	22	35	13
37	26	02	34	03	45	10	27	27	99	92	49	23	12	06	08	42	06	15	35	84	37	93	60
33	20	29	33	60	91	70	40	06	97	49	91	02	35	47	15	61	71	61	30	49	51	68	03
98	57	96	85	89	19	98	86	98	40	71	02	74	14	84	01	74	86	16	19	18	14	66	33
28	89	91	08	01	01	07	20	63	21	51	82	15	85	02	90	50	62	01	32	96	20	49	26
25	14	19	22	29	84	92	87	78	82	29	91	39	48	33	13	14	18	30	46	30	46	35	28
93	46	89	39	25	21	43	05	41	83	92	46	22	88	69	97	16	24	25	95	97	95	16	72
32	23	63	73	41	78	94	76	33	88	98	89	47	70	53	68	90	76	31	81	91	48	20	67
77	66	93	02	21	84	58	73	01	72	62	17	78	76	42	40	93	63	42	56	87	17	12	59
03	85	71	71	34	17	98	19	15	64	21	34	29	86	44	56	11	00	22	16	99	40	39	04
50	01	30	84	13	25	36	74	11	55	56	34	07	15	67	15	10	67	95	13	11	95	27	33
08	39	47	88	24	05	54	12	98	67	08	83	37	40	06	53	06	22	89	56	74	41	47	05
72	09	29	63	56	92	29	42	95	24	86	01	63	57	26	82	37	85	92	31	89	71	41	50
32	31	86	79	75	09	72	37	16	81	94	32	50	03	97	43	41	71	81	61	90	35	79	54
43	00	18	60	85	43	65	59	69	44	89	85	66	30	49	45	73	49	38	00	42	03	36	86
30	72	70	68	37	51	60	08	01	02	04	80	05	26	53	84	58	64	66	46	23	18	05	14
73	47	62	29	40	94	14	03	24	60	51	10	67	60	22	06	48	06	32	77	79	95	72	65
42	95	29	60	55	04	70	74	19	86	38	79	30	99	82	64	59	55	92	99	56	64	55	78
82	28	21	85	36	74	34	08	93	42	91	17	50	41	87	60	74	06	20	60	30	80	89	17
82	06	98	34	19	16	05	08	43	53	71	69	22	42	88	61	85	13	94	95	45	77	21	32
10	26	34	28	18	80	25	54	72	93	53	20	80	94	26	92	01	11	23	36	02	27	45	86
72	48	75	56	92	71	52	88	65	22	12	11	26	97	54	77	85	69	74	03	05	81	93	60
43	57	65	26	90	94	29	97	83	56	16	80	35	73	29	98	29	61	81	65	60	20	78	74
93	74	09	87	16	21	89	64	82	95	55	39	78	77	14	16	09	63	55	03	84	88	85	14
69	21	79	24	11	02	76	37	92	23	00	92	07	59	86	92	48	16	05	13	94	49	10	97
74	54	52	05	21	04	38	02	28	01	85	14	33	59	45	24	07	56	45	72	22	37	99	26
01	92	17	82	44	88	38	72	81	89	85	60	56	74	02	16	28	07	55	83	09	70	41	47
17	88	24	71	57	24	49	74	43	16	46	90	68	97	01	71	91	57	01	76	19	70	87	06
69	46	81	37	41	63	63	06	84	93	24	11	93	80	02	00	87	12	34	33	90	88	61	42
40	06	60	93	47	65	32	88	29	44	83	12	69	87	90	09	55	22	23	00	60	42	59	26
18	92	34	43	51	20	67	25	18	15	07	91	54	41	84	90	65	86	39	20	57	32	50	42
61	31	38	06	49	73	63	30	56	71	46	78	21	33	16	40	61	80	40	80	35	57	65	46
60	84	04	59	77	17	70	99	18	66	59	27	92	13	26	88	18	97	92	46	01	18	78	89
50	92	61	66	62	17	30	36	24	71	78	59	89	26	07	36	40	54	72	13	21	45	73	16
37	51	08	23	67	82	38	24	84	65	70	83	63	02	22	66	69	19	86	40	87	60	05	39
99	05	75	78	42	83	23	80	13	71	58	99	53	25	89	33	17	74	93	39	78	88	81	84
23	11	78	92	94	15	61	12	86	92	10	94	55	52	22	44	56	32	71	22	33	34	69	18
07	41	55	76	61	40	12	38	23	19	58	35	98	24	30	79	76	45	22	59	70	58	50	72
18	76	63	42	69	17	20	39	94	71	70	54	88	19	84	48	14	51	24	65	52	61	92	60
09	35	01	25	89	06	69	42	32	52	39	79	09	89	10	74	43	24	35	97	37	79	45	96
74	34	36	99	08	73	15	61	33	24	02	80	29	28	62	94	13	32	27	45	15	24	96	35

TABLE 6:

RANDOM NUMBERS

5 46 87	96 73	55 04	92 01	85 20	71 33	81 57	24 65	69 55	06 52	43 15	09 23	09 83
5 24 91	25 44	72 88	39 34	61 77	69 55	63 60	23 76	26 89	83 90	26 57	44 77	68 02
1 10 94	35 12	90 56	12 44	30 65	67 85	19 12	16 73	69 60	72 81	55 31	19 32	13 49
1 59 07	01 65	01 18	25 33	98 51	70 02	84 00	32 26	87 63	95 80	90 53	14 03	05 14
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3 51 88	71 99	34 05	01 91	32 67	84 84	54 08	26 96	44 03	13 23	72 49	84 96	92 54
2 14 50	96 40	41 90	95 90	58 43	45 94	13 23	44 28	90 56	20 96	62 12	91 04	93 69
9 86 04	51 46	17 95	24 76	66 05	72 62	97 34	81 32	45 25	69 58	52 58	46 64	96 87
3 62 51	31 72	57 39	05 03	30 89	89 10	78 35	83 69	41 52	67 77	03 81	58 17	28 23
9 22 89	41 53	05 92	89 94	80 90	00 64	29 48	18 44	67 05	25 91	50 02	63 11	83 23
47 54 00	60 41	08 41	20 06	17 88	74 96	27 65	81 63	08 45	23 90	03 60	86 20	12 45
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86 80 13	70 82	11 97	55 77	56 69	39 91	16 37	37 00	59 61	04 35	68 57	65 85	04 80
19 39 39	66 80	47 97	20 55	75 03	95 63	08 77	09 78	49 69	57 60	25 97	35 90	79 52
90 35 22	69 25	34 09	94 50	17 88	44 85	65 34	69 20	15 94	46 53	38 26	59 32	90 23
74 24 47	43 41	23 40	50 40	80 21	58 51	89 20	06 54	56 28	22 47	62 26	65 54	73 41
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93 28 58	94 96	43 01	32 56	61 52	14 93	55 75	02 42	26 89	07 44	89 14	31 31	52 63
58 13 66	40 72	21 73	17 78	52 40	10 57	37 39	50 03	00 81	01 19	09 90	93 43	12 64
60 35 68	35 11	03 59	73 25	32 56	35 14	60 23	25 08	56 48	42 52	70 30	91 37	76 18
19 60 63	32 27	87 24	65 03	37 20	91 94	20 83	52 34	72 40	74 28	10 00	78 69	65 18
10 53 45	28 95	53 82	90 65	98 68	19 92	56 47	14 30	44 60	49 77	89 46	96 42	81 15
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66 62 77	85 99	99 96	27 42	61 42	38 02	11 47	33 40	93 50	50 84	78 81	35 94	86 00
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6 20 49 26	18 18	67 84	42 26	28 21	32 81	54 36	34 58	21 24	36 98	27 11	63 89	70 76
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1 48 20 67	69 54	37 27	31 17	37 83	40 68	88 88	76 21	67 16	11 52	41 73	85 35	23 33
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APPENDIX - MATHEMATICAL PRINCIPLES IN DISEASE SURVEYS

A.1 Testing for the Presence of a Disease

Suppose that we are sampling a population to test that there are no positives in the population.

Let

N be the population size,
 d be the number of diseased animals in the population
 n be the number of animals sampled
and β be the probability that there are no positives in the sample.

Either from first principles, or from the hypergeometric distribution, these four variables are related by

$$\beta = \frac{N-d}{N} \cdot \frac{N-d+1}{N-1} \cdots \frac{N-d-n+1}{N-n+1} \quad (1)$$

which may be rewritten as

$$\beta = \frac{(N-d)! (N-n)!}{N! (N-d-n)!} \quad (2)$$

Equation (1) simply states that the probability that there are no positives in the sample is equal to the probability a positive is not the first animal sampled times the probability that a positive is not the second animal sampled, and so on, to the probability that a positive is not the n^{th} animal sampled.

In order to answer the question 'How many to sample?', we take the N and d of interest and successively multiply the terms in (1) until we get a product less than the desired level. If we choose this value of n as our sample size, the chances of finding at least one of the d positives will be $1-\beta$, the confidence level that we want.

It is more tedious to answer the question 'If I find no positives in a sample what is an upper limit to the number of positives?' Simplistically trial and error could be used to solve (1) for d given N , n and β . Luckily there is a very good approximation available. Each term in the numerator and denominator of (1) can be approximated by the 'middle' term of the product to give:

$$\beta \approx \left(\frac{N-d-(n-1)/2}{N-(n-1)/2} \right)^n = \left(1 - \frac{d}{N-(n-1)/2} \right)^n$$

By taking the n^{th} root, we find that d is given by:

$$d \approx \left(1 - \beta^{1/n} \right) \left(N - \frac{n-1}{2} \right)$$

and this is basically the approximation referred to in Table 1.

probability no positives in the sample
30

If we look at equation (2) we see that d and n can be interchanged without changing the formula. This is why Table 1 can be used to answer both questions. It also means that the same form of approximation can be used to quickly obtain the sample size:

$$n \approx (1 - \beta^{1/d}) (N - \frac{d-1}{2})$$

As the population size increases but $\theta = d/N$, the proportion of diseased animals, remains constant, then equation (1) becomes

$$\theta = (1 - \beta)^n \quad (3)$$

(This is equivalent to the binominal approximation to the hypergeometric distribution.)

Solving (3) for n gives:

$$n = \log \beta / \log(1 - \theta)$$

as the limit to the sample size required, and

$$\theta = 1 - \beta^{1/n}$$

as the upper limit to the proportion of diseased animals in the population if no positives are found in a sample from a very large population.

that there are no

ation

in the sample.

the hypergeometric

(1)

(2)

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to give:

$$\frac{d}{(n-1)/2} \Big)^n$$

by:

to in Table 1.

A.2 Estimating a Proportion:

This section considers the problems concerning the estimation of the actual level of disease, rather than simply determining its absence or presence.

Again we shall consider a population of size N with $d = N\theta$ diseased animals. We shall take a sample of size n and look at the (random) number X of diseased animals in the sample.

The statistical distribution that describes this form of sampling is the hypergeometric distribution. From simple combinational arguments we can show that the probability that we get x positives in the sample is

$$\text{Prob } \{X=x\} = \frac{\binom{d}{x} \binom{N-d}{n-x}}{\binom{N}{n}}$$

The mean of X is $n\theta$ and the variance is $n\theta(1-\theta)\frac{N-n}{N-1}$.

If the population size is large, the binomial distribution can be used to approximate the hypergeometric distribution to give

$$\text{Prob } \{X=x\} = \binom{n}{x} \theta^x (1-\theta)^{n-x}$$

X has mean and variance of $n\theta$ and $n\theta(1-\theta)$ respectively.

We want to answer three questions:

- i) what is an estimate of θ ?
- ii) what are confidence limits for θ ?
- iii) how big a sample should we take to get specified confidence limits? (which should have been asked first).

i) Estimating the proportion

Regardless of the population size, we shall use $p=x/n$ as an estimate of the proportion of diseased animals.

ii) Finding confidence limits for a proportion

Initially we shall assume that the sample is from an infinite population and later give an approximation to take into account the population size.

When determining confidence limits, we are looking for values of θ for which the observed value is 'likely'. Put another way, if the probability of observing the same or worse result for a particular value of θ is small, then that value of θ is not included in the confidence limits. This reasoning leads to solving the equation

$$B = \sum_{i=0}^x \binom{n}{i} \theta^i (1-\theta)^{n-i} \quad \text{for } \theta.$$

trial and

variance
width of

$$\sqrt{\frac{N-n}{N-1}}$$

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iii) App

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say tw .

Using
requirements

$$w =$$

By solving the

$$n_{\infty} =$$

and it is this

For a

$$w = v$$

By squaring and

$$\frac{1}{n} = \frac{1}{N}$$

There is no elegant easy alternative to using a systematic trial and error approach.

Table 5 provides these confidence limits.

The effect of the finite population size is to reduce the variance by the fraction $(N-n)/(N-1)$. We should then expect that the width of the confidence limits would be reduced by a factor of

$$\sqrt{\frac{N-n}{N-1}} \text{ or approximately } \sqrt{1 - \frac{n}{N}}.$$

This approximation turns out to be quite good for middle sized values of θ , but it over estimates the reduction for lower limits near $\theta = 0$, and upper limits near $\theta = 1$ (because the variable cannot go outside the range of 0 and 1).

For large values of n (say greater than 50), the normal approximation to the binomial distribution holds fairly well at the tails of the distribution. If v is the corresponding normal percentage point, then approximate confidence limits are given by

$$p \pm (v \sqrt{\frac{p(1-p)}{n} (1 - \frac{n}{N})} + \frac{1}{2n})$$

iii) Approximate sample size required

Before doing the sampling, it is worthwhile estimating the sample size required to give the desired width of confidence limits, say $\pm w$.

Using the normal approximation mentioned above, this requirement means that, for an infinite population,

$$w = v \sqrt{\theta(1-\theta)/n}$$

By solving this for n , we obtain

$$n_{\infty} = (v/w)^2 \theta(1-\theta)$$

and it is this function that is given in Table 4.

For a finite population, the requirement implies that

$$w = v \sqrt{\frac{\theta(1-\theta)}{n} (1 - \frac{n}{N})} = v \sqrt{\theta(1-\theta) (\frac{1}{n} - \frac{1}{N})}$$

By squaring and rearranging we get

$$\frac{1}{n} = \frac{1}{N} + \left(\frac{w}{v}\right)^2 \frac{1}{\theta(1-\theta)} = \frac{1}{N} + \frac{1}{n_{\infty}}$$

A.3 Estimating Population Size

Sometimes we do not know the population size, but rather are wanting to estimate it. Typical cases would concern feral animals or where mustering is difficult.

One method is to use a capture-recapture sampling scheme.

Suppose that an initial sample of d animals are captured, marked in some way and released. After a time suitable to allow for mixing of the population, but which would preclude many deaths/births, another sample of n (the recapture) is done. x is the number of the original sample recaptured.

An estimation of the population size is given by $N = d \frac{n}{x}$

Approximate confidence limits can be found (using Table 5) as follows

- (i) estimate $N = d \frac{n}{x}$
- (ii) calculate $p = d/N$, $q=1-p$, $f=n/N$
- (iii) calculate upper and lower limits for p (from Table 5) after adjusting the width by the finite population correction factor $\sqrt{1-f}$
- (iv) estimate upper and lower estimates using d/p .

Often only an upper limit for N is required. In this case only the lower one-sided limit for p needs to be calculated.

Example 1:

At the first round of testing of a herd, 120 animals were mustered. At the second round, 130 animals, which included 110 of those present at the first test, were mustered. How many animals are untested?

We have $d=120$, $n=130$ and $x=110$

- (i) This gives an estimate of $N=120 \times 130 \div 110 = 141$
- (ii) $p=.85$, $q=.15$, $f=.92$, $\sqrt{1-f}=.28$
- (iii) from the 95% table the lower limit is
 $.85 - (.07 \times .28) = .85 - 0.0196 = .8304$
- (iv) whence 95% confidence limit for the maximum value of N is 144

Thus: 110 were tested twice
10 were presented for first test but not second
20 were presented for second test but not first
4 remain untested.

Example 2:

400 feral pigs are captured, marked and then released. 40 of the original capture are found when another 400 pigs are captured.

We have $d=400$, $n=400$, and $x=40$.

- (i) $N=4000$
- (ii) $p=.1$, $q=.9$, $f=.9$, $\sqrt{1-f}=.95$
- (iii) upper limit is $.1 + (.025 \times .95) = .1037$
lower limit is $.1 - (.025 \times .95) = .0763$
- (iv) 95% limits for N are (3233, 5249).

A.4 Further Reading

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